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ABSTRACT

A discussion of points raised by Dell Hymes in his article "On Communicative Competence" leads to a proposal for a clearer and more comprehensive theory of communicative competence based on two models, a matrix of discourse analysis and a model of communication interaction. Pedagogical implications of the theory are considered, including the insights it has provided into the teaching-learning situation and into factors other than language alone. It is suggested that if language educators aim at developing communicative competence, all aspects of this competence must be taken into account. Some of these aspects are the culture and what it means to someone foreign to the culture, the specific situation in which the learners will operate and the aspects of general culture impinging on them, the language functions expected in those situations, the varieties of language appropriate to them, the grammar coinciding with the functions engaged in, and the kinesics and paralinguistic aspects of communication appropriate in the situation. (MSE)

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COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE RECONSIDERED

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1. Introduction

During the past decade or so, the period of anti-Chomskian revolution as some may call it, a considerable amount of work, both on the theoretical and practical levels, has been produced concerning the concept of communicative competence and language learning and teaching. In this paper, we are going to reconsider this concept with a special concentration on its relevance to foreign language learning and teaching.

Since Hymes 'On Communicative Competence' was published in 1972, people working in the field of applied linguistics, especially coursewriters, have been fascinated by the call for the communicative teaching of language. Fluency and appropriateness have been given more importance than accuracy or grammaticality.

Despite the many courses designed to meet this new trend of language teaching and despite the efforts to introduce these courses or textbooks to schools in many parts of the world, we feel dissatisfied, if not disappointed, especially with reference to what is going on in Jordan and many other Arab countries. Our dissatisfaction is due to the following reasons: Firstly, we feel that there is still a considerable gap between the concept of communicative competence as a theory and the applications of this theory. The main reason for this gap, as we see it, is that the theory itself is not as comprehensive as is needed for the foreign languages teaching. Moreover, the components of the communicative competence of the foreign language learner have not been established or stated clearly and specifically.

Secondly, there are great gaps in the teachers' theoretical linguistic background. Many of the teachers we have met have not yet heard of what is called 'communicative competence.'

Thirdly, coursebook writers, usually native speakers of the target language, concentrate on the target language expressions without taking into consideration the situation of the native

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language or of the learners. This is due, of course, to the lack of an appropriate communicative/functional contrastive analysis. (And often coursewriters do not know the native language of the students - assuming the course is aimed at one language community, which often is not the case).

In this paper we hope to give a more comprehensive analysis of communicative competence and to state more clearly and specifically the basic components of the communicative competence of foreign language learners.

2. The Work of Dell Hymes

Before we introduce our own expanded version of communicative competence, we find it helpful to discuss some of the most important points raised by Dell Hymes in his article 'On Communicative Competence,' (in Pride and Holmes 1972). This paper is considered by many scholars as the starting point in the field of communicative language teaching.

2.1. Hymes and Chomsky

Although Hymes's paper is essentially a contribution to the theory of linguistics in particular, it was written as he says, with an eye to an educational problem, that of the "language problem of disadvantaged children." Referring to this problem, Hymes contends that to a great extent programs to change the language situation of children are an attempt to apply a basic science that does not exist, (Hymes 1972 in Pride & Holmes (eds.) 1972, p. 269). What he evidently means by this statement is that educationalists and applied linguists and teachers who attempt to apply the findings of linguistics in programmes aimed at solving practical language problems have found that they are not as successful as they could be, because linguistics is not yet capable of accounting for all phenomena involved in language learning and language teaching. Thus it seems as if Hymes is suggesting that anyone who thinks that modern linguistics is a powerful enough science to provide all the information needed for the solution of language learning and teaching problems is deluding himself.

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Briefly, Hymes's paper gives us a strong indication that the Transformational-Generative theory of language description is not enough. To justify his position, Hymes quotes the following passage from page 3 of Chomsky's Aspects of the Theory of Syntax:

> "Linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distraction, shift of attention, and interest and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance."

In his comments on this theoretical perspective, Hymes says that it is relevant in some ways and that it is important always to have in mind; on the other hand there is a body of linguistic data and problems that would be left without theoretical insight, if such a limited conception of linguistic theory were to remain unchallenged (p. 270).

Our own comment concerning this theoretical perspective is related to the phrase "who knows its language perfectly." From our experience and knowledge of the characteristics of some languages, at least Arabic and English, we pose the following questions: in actual language situations there are many communities with more than one language (bilingual, trilingual) or with more than one language variety (diglossia, triglossia etc). So which language or variety can be considered the language of the community? The next question is what does the word 'perfectly' mean? What aspect of language should it be applied to? For example what 'perfect knowledge' can be attributed to an Arab who knows the phonological, syntactic and semantic aspects of a low variety and who knows only the phonological and semantic aspects of a high variety? Finally, is the technical language of a lecture on medicine or electronics listened to by a layman perfect or imperfect?

Moreover, Hymes argues that the limitations of TG theory appear when the image of the unfolding mastery fluent child

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is set beside real children in schools. The theory must seem if not irrelevant, then at best a doctrine of poignancy. Poignant because of the difference between what one imagines and what one sees; poignant too, because the theory so powerful in its own realm cannot on its terms cope with the difference (p. 271).

The TG theory cannot cope with such problems because it neglects the actual and real socio-cultural factors related to the use of language in real daily life situations by all members of the speech community.

Thus we see that there is a great need to take these socio-cultural factors into account both in relation with competence and performance if we are aiming at a successful language teaching.

Hymes sees the TG position as a Garden of Eden view, since in the real world we do not find ideal speaker-hearer in an ideally homogeneous speech community. Again, performance in the real world is not an imperfect mirror in which competence is reflected.

2.2. Differential Competence

Hymes next goes into detail on his question of differing levels of competence in a heterogeneous speech community. In the real world is there one perfect competence? In answering this question Hymes refers to Gazden's study of subcultural differences in language development in the U.S. He reminds us that she found that on all the measures, in all the studies, the upper socio-economic status children, however defined, are much more advanced than the lower socio-economic status children. Such findings mean that the differences between these categories of children and the better opportunities that upper-class children always have at schools are in a sense evident to any teacher anywhere whose work brings him with contact with children with different socio-economic status.

Hymes also argues that the combination of community diversity and differential competence makes it necessary not to take the presence of a language in a community at face value until its true

status has been established. In other words we should refrain from generalizations like "everyone in New Guinea speaks English," or "English is the language of New Guinea," because it might turn out that what we call English is characterized by an extremely small repertoire of items.

2.3. Dual competence

Hymes states that Labov has documented cases of dual competence in reception, but single competence in production and by referring to the work of Albert (1964) in Burundi, he states that there exists a dual competence in production as well. "A peasant may command the verbal abilities stressed and valued in the culture but cannot display them in the presence of a herder or other superior."

In the Jordanian situation we can find examples of both types of dual competence and even examples of triple competence. The linguistic situation in Jordan can be described as 'triglossic.' There are three different varieties; low (uneducated daily language), intermediate (=odern Arabic - language of schools and newspapers) and high (classical Arabic - Quranic). An uneducated peasant can produce only the low variety, but he can understand the intermediate variety when he listens to the news on the radio or TV and can understand the high variety when he listens to Quran recitation. On the other hand, an educated Jordanian can produce the Low and Intermediate varieties and understands all three varieties. A religious leader or clergyman can produce and understand the three varieties.

The question which poses itself now is, since the present theory of linguistics (TG) has so far failed to cope effectively with linguistic problems related to a single language in a homogeneous speech community, how can it cope with a situation with speaker-hearer with more than one competence? Moreover, if this theory is still incapable of solving the problems of native language (L_1) teaching, can it be adequate to cope with problems of foreign language teaching and learning?

These questions and many others show clearly the limitations of any theory which takes into account only the grammatical or

linguistic competence in the form of isolated sentences and neglects the sociocultural and the contextual factors of language description and language use.

2.4. Communicative Competence

Thus we can conclude that the present notion of competence and performance (in the TG sense) is not enough for a comprehensive description of language. Accordingly, the present formulation of the competence-performance dichotomy needs to be overhauled. The first step of overhauling it is to set up a theory of communicative competence of which grammatical competence is only one aspect. In Hymes's definition of competence and performance, the salient contrast is between 'the actual' and the 'underlying.' The term 'performance' is to be used to refer strictly to the 'actual use of language,' the sense in which Chomsky at least claims to be using it.

The result of insisting on the contrast being between 'the actual' and 'the underlying' is a far more general concept of competence than is found in Chomsky (Brumfit & Johnson 1979: 13). Chomsky concentrates on grammatically, strictly speaking "knowledge of the language system." By doing this Chomsky is limiting himself to a narrow concept of competence. A more general concept of competance and a more comprehensive view of language description involves far more than knowledge of grammaticality. "There are," in Hymes's words, "rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless." (1972 in Pride & Holmes: 278).

2.5. Sectors of Communicative Competence

According to Hymes, there are several sectors of communicative competence of which the grammatical is one.

Hymes lists four sectors: The first, 'whether or not something is formally possible' is roughly speaking, similar to Chomsky's restricted concept of competence as grammaticality, e.g. 'Ali ate the apple' is possible (i.e. grammatical). 'The ate Ali apple' is impossible (i.e. ungrammatical). The second sector deals with feasibility. A sentence like 'The mouse the cat the dog the man the woman married beat chased ate had a white tail' is grammatically possible, but is hardly feasible. The third sector covers

appropriateness to the context. The speaker-listener's underlying competence includes rules of appropriateness and a sentence can be grammatically possible, feasible but inappropriate, e.g. 'I send you my congratulations on your uncle's death,' can never be appropriate even though you know well that your friend's uncle was very ill and in his nineties and your friend is impatiently waiting for his uncle's death to inherit his great fortune.

The fourth sector concerns 'whether or not something is in fact done.' Something may be possible, feasible and appropriate and not occur. This sector is related to accepted usage, e.g. the double negative in English or the use of present continuous for commenting on one's own active work, 'I'm going to the door' (in the classroom).

In sum, says Hymes, the goal of a broad theory of competence can be said to show the ways in which the systematically possible, the feasible and the appropriate are linked to produce and interpret actually occurring cultural behaviour (Ibid, 286).

3. In our attempt to arrive at a more comprehensive formulation of competence, we are going to depend on two main interrelated matrices: the establishment of a Sociolinguistic Matrix of Discourse Analysis (SMDA); and then propose a model of Communication Interaction (SMCI). In what follows we are going to deal with these two steps and then to conclude with a general framework of communicative competence.

3.1. A Sociolinguistic Matrix of Discourse Analysis (SMDA)

Starting from our belief in the importance of taking discourse into account in the teaching of languages, especially at the level of syllabus design and preparation of teaching material, and since we believe that emphasis in language teaching should move from concentrating on the properties of sentences in isolation to a concern for the use of sentences in combination, we find it is helpful to propose a comprehensive matrix or model of discourse analysis.

This Sociolinguistic Matrix of Discourse Analysis (SMDA) forms an integral component of our comprehensive concept of communicative competence.

In our view, a model designed to form an essential part of a communicative syllabus should take into account the following interrelated areas: firstly, it should give considerable attention to the analysis of linguistic structures and the relations between the different units of the sentence as meaningful units and not as isolated linguistic units, e.g. consider the word 'which' in the following sentences:

1. He lives in the house which stands at the top of the hill;
2. He was driving his car very fast, which was dangerous.

Personal experience has shown that Arab students encounter a serious difficulty in understanding the meanings and analysing relationships in sentences similar to No. 2 above, because they usually think that 'which' goes back to the immediate preceding word as in sentence No. 1. This means that a structural type of analysis could be helpful in understanding and interpreting a message.

Secondly the model should give more attention to text analysis. Concentration here should be given to relations and links between sentences in a text. This area of analysis is concerned with overt, formal linguistic features in establishing the links in a piece of discourse. In other words, it involves linguistic cohesion within the text. The study of grammatical cohesion aims to 'discover the characteristics of a text as distinct from a collection of sentences (Hasan 1968:24). This area of analysis includes, for example, functional notions of linguistic forms such as anaphora and cataphora as illustrated in 3 and 4 below:

3. The man drove the car and it ran over the child ('it' refers backwards to the car. It has an anaphoric reference).
4. It was the car that ran over the child ('it' refers forwards to 'that ran over the child,' or to the car. It has a cataphoric reference).

Thirdly, and most importantly, the model should give more concentration to discourse coherence. In other words it should

emphasize and analyze the links between the sentence(s) and the context or situation. This means that much more attention should be given to pragmatic relations and sociolinguistic factors in the context.

Basically, we are interested in concentrating on the third area, discourse analysis. In other words we are very much in favour of giving more emphasis to 'sentences in use' with an eye on the other two areas since we believe that they are closely related and can be useful in language teaching.

3.2. The SMDA Components

As has been stated above much emphasis is given here to language in context. Hence the SMDA is a model of sociolinguistic interaction and it takes into consideration the following elements: (see fig. 1).

1. Social domain: the social setting of discourse, e.g. the family, friendship, education (school), religion (mosque, church, etc) and employment or occupation.
2. Interlocutor related to the social domain, e.g. parents, friends, teachers, priests, etc.
3. Sociolinguistic variables such as age, sex, status, education and so on.
4. Social situation such as physical setting (i.e. place), time, topic, etc.
5. Social distance; this includes solidarity, intimacy, authority, formality and even physical distance, i.e. space between participants which can be affected by the social distance.
6. Channels of communication, including verbal and non-verbal means of communication.
7. Language variety: whether the language used is standard or regional dialect and whether it has special social features 'socialect' and/or special features related to the sex of the participant 'sexolect.'

8. Style: style can be described as intimate, informal, formal or frozen (after Joos).

9. Language function(s): this includes the main or macro-functions such as personal, interpersonal, ideational and textual. It also includes other sub-functions or micro-functions such as commands, suggestions, advice, socialization.

10. Relationships: relationships between participants depend more or less on the social domain. For example, within the family, we might find the following relations:—

child — child	(+ equality)	A——A
child — parent	(- equality)	A——B
mother — father	(- equality)	A——B
	or	
	(+ equality)	A——A

3.3. Discussion and Conclusion

Having established this integrated model of discourse analysis, we would like to draw attention to the following points: First of all, the list of elements and sub-categories included in this matrix has by no means been exhausted. Many relevant sub-categories can be added especially to categories 9 and 10.

The second point, which is strongly related to the first remark above, is that although this model is considered to be adequate with reference to all social domains, there is no doubt that each domain has some special domain-specific sub-categories (or elements).

The third point is that we employ a system of binary taxonomy ($\pm$ features) which makes the model more precise and more applicable.

Finally, we consider this matrix a necessary background for our proposed model of communicative interaction.

4. A Sociolinguistic Model of Communicative Interaction (SMCI)

4.1. The Model Introduced

This model which is based on the SMDA described in the previous section, is established to help us understand and interpret a message in its actual context. It can also be described as a

more comprehensive model of language description. As can be seen in Fig. 2, the SMCI consists of a number of components which have been assigned ± features. The basic features considered here are ± appropriate (including ± accurate) and ± successful.

As can be seen in Fig. 2 if all selections have the feature + appropriate, then the message is very likely to be + successful. But if one or more selections have the feature -appropriate (but not -accurate), then the message is more likely to be -successful or at least misunderstood or confused.

In our view, the most important components as far as language learning is concerned, are those labelled language expression and language function. A successful interaction depends to a large extent on the successful matching of these two components. In other words, a successful interaction depends on the selection of language expressions to achieve the intended function.

This conclusion emerges from our belief that one of the basic problems a foreign language learner faces is to find the appropriate expression (form) to convey his meaning. If we consider language expression separately, we find that formal selections, although they might be native-like utterances, might not convey the appropriate meaning or at least might cause misunderstanding or what we call communication breakdown.

The SMCI is a comprehensive model in the sense that it does not neglect any level or aspect of language and it takes into consideration all the necessary elements in the communication interaction. All linguistic paralinguistic, and kinesic elements and some others are accounted for and considered collectively in an integrated social situational context.

4.2. Conclusion

From the applied linguist's viewpoint, any single theory of language description is not enough to be considered as the only adequate theoretical background for the construction of a language teaching syllabus or teaching material. Hence we see that it is not only <u>how</u> members of a speech community speak that

concerns us but also what they speak. Consequently, it is not enough to aim at a native-like linguistic (formal) competence; more emphasis should be given to the development of native-like communicative (functional) competence.

Thus a sequence of +features like the following sequence

phonology	+ accurate	
morphology	+ accurate	⟶ (+ accurate form)
syntax	+ accurate	
lexis	+ accurate	

does not necessarily yield +successful (message) unless all other features such as setting (place and time), style (formal or informal) etc. are +appropriate. Any feature with a -appropriate will no doubt negatively affect the intended message.

Finally, as has been stated early in the introduction to this theoretical background, one of the main objectives of carrying out this theoretical discussion is to shed some light on the specific components of a general, more comprehensive formulation of communicative competence. Hence, the present sub-section concerning the SMCI forms an important part of this general formulation (see Fig. 3).

5. Communicative Competence: A New Comprehensive Concept

5.1. Introduction

In the light of our discussion and proposed models introduced in the previous pages, here we propose a model of a more comprehensive concept of communicative competence (CCCC).

Since one of the major objectives of this paper is to provide a more comprehensive background for syllabus design and teaching material, we feel that this new concept (the CCCC) will form an essential part of such a background.

5.2. The Components of the Comprehensive Concept of Communicative Competence (CCCC)

Although this model can be useful for both native and foreign language learners, we are more interested here in the development of competence in foreign languages. Hence every single element in this model is important and plays a considerable role in developing this competence, although we cannot claim that all of these elements are equally important.

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This proposed model (the CCCC) takes into account five main types of competence and each type consists of a number of integrated or complementary components (see Fig. 3). These main types are necessary if learners or syllabus designers and coursebook writers aim at arriving at native-like communicative competence.

The first component is linguistic competence (LC): the learners are supposed to discriminate and produce the different sounds (phonemes) of the foreign language. They are also supposed to understand the morphological system and be able to use and understand the function of the different types of suffixes and prefixes employed in the foreign language and how to manipulate them to build up new forms. Moreover, they are supposed to know (from our point of view to use and employ appropriately) the grammatical rules of the foreign language such as word order and transformations: producing questions, negative, affirmative statements, etc. Finally, they should have a considerable knowledge of active and passive vocabulary.

Unfortunately, most language teaching programmes, until very recently in some countries and up till now in Jordan, have given great emphasis to linguistic competence. They have stressed accuracy on the cost of fluency and appropriateness.

The second component is para-linguistic competence (Para-LC). This type of competence consists of two main components: verbal and non-verbal. As far as the verbal component is concerned, learners are supposed to discriminate and produce as accurately as possible different types of word and sentence stress and to understand stress both on the word and sentence levels.

The intonation system of the target language is of great importance and it plays an essential part in communication interaction. The permutation and combination of these supra-segmental phonemes is one of the most difficult areas of foreign language learning, both on the productive and receptive levels.

The non-verbal component of para-linguistic competence is concerned with kinesics, proxemics and eye contact. Kinesics

involves facial expression, head movement, body posture and movement, etc.

Proxemics is concerned with spatial relationships. This is also strongly related to what we call textual competence, as will be seen later.

Eye-contact involves eye movement, eye-direction and duration of direct and indirect contact.

The third component of our model is contextual competence. This type of competence involves three main dimensions: the physical dimension which involves space and setting of speech act, the psychological dimension concerning predisposition, emotional state, feelings and biases, and the social dimension which involves social values and characteristics.

The fourth component is sociocultural competence. An adequate sociocultural background is essential for the development of communicative competence.

The fifth and final component is what we call the empathic competence. Katz (1963: 93) defines empathy as a sort of 'vicarious introspection.' It is a capacity to put the other person, with all his or her inner characteristics, into your shoes and to understand what that person is feeling by feeling those same things inside yourself (Scheidel,1975: 394). Thus to empathize, according to Scheidel, is to discover all the available pertinent information about the people who will be receiving and interpreting your intended message. To do this well you must get to know them well.

Empathy is an indispensable skill for foreign language learners especially for those who intend to enter a foreign culture.

There are several stages or steps to empathy (Scheidel, Ibid: 395). An empathic person is first and foremost perceptive, alert to what may be subtle cues, recognising that in the culture they may not be subtle at all.

Second, the empathic person is able to withhold judgement or the drawing of inferences. He must avoid jumping to unwarranted conclusions.

Third, the empathic person is able to control presuppositions (able to know what the sender of a message means).

Fourth, the empathic person comes up with good hunches, good explanations and good inferences about what things mean and count for.

Finally, the empathic person is aware of communication breakdown, misunderstanding and confusion.

According to John Parry, quoted by Scheidel (Ibid 396 -8), there are seven causes of communication breakdown:

The first cause is channel overload. When we try to communicate too much, the eventual result is confusion. Also channel underload can cause bewilderment.

The second cause is distraction. Foreignness itself is a distractor. Foreigners usually speak with a recognisably different accent. From the foreign language learners viewpoint foreigners speak more clearly than native speakers. Many students prefer to be taught by a non-native speaker of the target language.

The third cause is the inability of receivers of a message to fill in unstated assumptions. If all assumptions had to be explicit, communication would be impossible. One should avoid being misunderstood by giving as much information as possible.

The fourth cause of breakdown emerges from the different ways people experience the world, e.g. different interpretations of the concept of 'freedom.'

The fifth cause is related to the elements of experience which are taboo and have been repressed.

Parry's sixth cause of breakdown is that of confused or confusing presentation of messages. We may not be able to anticipate that our planned presentation will be confusing to those in an alien culture. Often we lack the necessary knowledge of the ordinary rhetorical forms, the expected patterns of organization and presentation, and the favoured forms of argument.

Parry's seventh and final cause of breakdown is simple - the message does not arrive. Absence of familiar channels or

ignorance of alternative channels plagues the intercultural communicator. One may utilize less effective means of getting messages through when more effective ones are available because one is not aware of them.

5.3. Conclusion and pedagogical implications

In this section of our study we intended to establish a clear and more comprehensive theory of communicative competence. For this purpose we established two main models - a matrix of discourse analysis and a model of communication interaction. Finally we established a more comprehensive concept of communicative competence.

The pedagogical and teaching implications of this general theory are numerous and various. Here we are going to consider some of these implications briefly.

Generally speaking, there is no doubt that the theory has shed light on the importance of many aspects in the teaching learning situation. It has shown that an effective language learning should take into account many factors and not rely completely on the formal possibilities of language. Moreover a comprehensive theory of communicative competence indicates clearly that language alone, as traditionally defined, does not necessarily or always form the substance of communication, as our traditional structural dominated approaches would suggest.

Taken from the learner's or syllabus' viewpoint, the theory has to be considered in the light of the learner's needs. So much of language teaching depends on the matching of methods to aims. So, the aims of some courses may not be full communicative competence, or may include only limited aspects of communicative competence. However, even courses which do not stress communicative competence in its fullest sense might well be enriched by one or more notions of this theory. In our view, the more our aims have to do with teaching people not only to understand, but also to produce in communicative situations, the more the implications of the theory become clear. Personal experience has shown that learning the structures of the the language (i.e.

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developing the linguistic competence only) can never be sufficient to develop the communicative ability either on the receptive or the productive level. Starting from this assumption, the theory states clearly that the learners we are preparing for communicative situations cannot be regarded as islands or as Strevens puts it, simply as 'acquisition devices,' but as human beings who will be operating in the context of a culture and in communication situations for which this culture has rules and strategies. Specifically speaking, if we aim at developing communicative competence, then all aspects of this competence (see Fig. 3) should be taken into account. We have to start by considering the culture, and what that implies for anyone who is foreign to it, the particular situation in which our learners are going to operate and these aspects of the general culture which impinge upon them, the language functions expected of those who operate in those situations, the varieties of language appropriate to them, the grammar which coincides with the functions engaged in, and the kinesics and paralinguistic aspects of communication appropriate in the situation (see Figs. 1 and 2).

The question which can be posed now is related to what is called 'the creation of relevant situations.' Is the classroom a suitable and adequate environment for the creation of such communicative situations? If it is not, what are we going to do about it? Part of the answer may be with educational technology, on which we can rely to some extent to evoke the sort of realities we may wish or need to create.

Fig. 1 - Sociolinguistic Model of Discourse Analysis (SMDA)

Social Domain / Interlocutor	Socio-linguistic Variables	Social situation	Social Distance	Channels of Communication	Language Variety	Style	Language Function	Relationships
Family Friendship Education Religion Employment Parents Friends Teachers Priests Employer	Age ± same Sex ± same Status ± high ± personal Rules ± integrated Education ± high ± same Activities ± controlled Participation ± active	Setting ± appropriate Time ± appropriate Topic ± familial ± business etc.	± great ± superior ± formality ± intimacy	± linguistic ± verbal	± standard ± idiolect ± sociolect ± acrolect ± special jargon	Intimate ± familial Informal ± casual Formal ± business Frozen ± literary ± prosaic	Ideational : (experiential logical) Interpersonal (Socialization, greetings invitations offers request, etc Textual cohesion coherance	A ⟷ B A ⟶ B A ⟶ B

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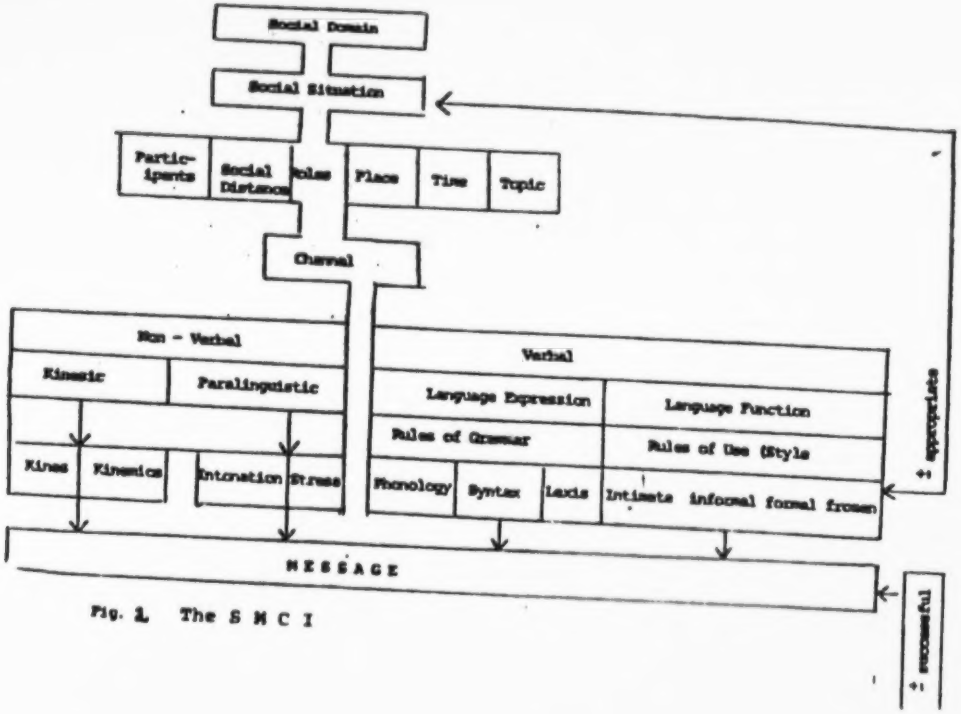

Fig. 1 The S M C I

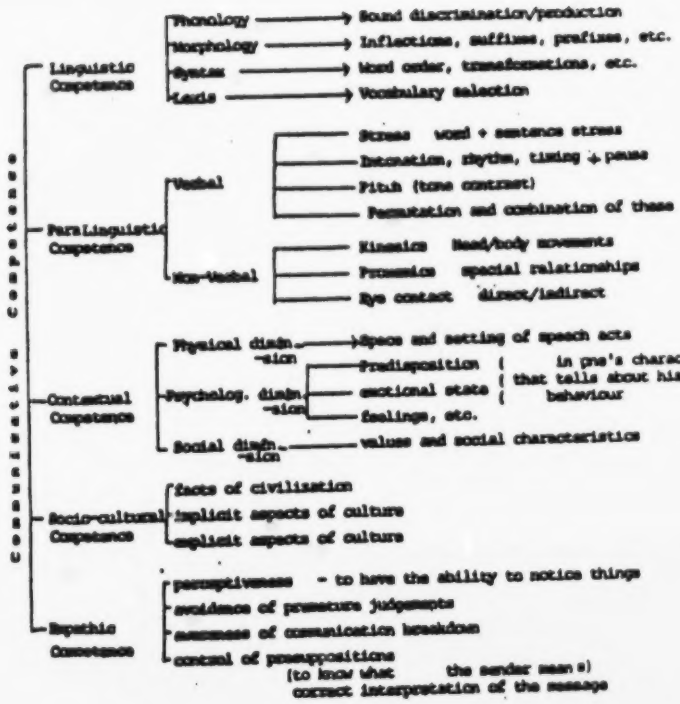

FIG. 3. A Comprehensive Concept of Communicative Competence (CCCC)

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